The Theory Behind The ASCA National Model

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This section presents the theory behind the ASCA National Model®. It begins with defining what constitutes a theory and presents a brief history of school counseling theory and model development. Next, it outlines seven fundamental questions to be answered by a theory of school counseling.

The current answers to the fundamental questions are presented as 27 major principles and 15 sub-principles extrapolated from the ASCA National Standards and the ASCA National Model. Then, each principle included in the theory is discussed in detail.

What Constitutes a Theory?

A theory is a more or less verified explanation of "why things are as they are" (Kehas, 1980, p. 17). A theory guides policy and practice, and practice and policy inform theory. A theory answers basic questions for a profession such as, "What are the substantive bases of the function?" and "What knowledge undergirds and influences the formulation of guidance policy and practice?" (Kehas, p. 17). "Why do school counselors do what they do?" "Who do they do it for and why?" A theory is derived by identifying the fundamental questions that need to be answered. Building the theoretical model entails answering these questions, based on the knowledge, values, and experience of the profession as to who should receive guidance services, why these services are being provided, and how these services can be provided most effectively (Shaw, 1968, 1973). These answers need to be more or less verified by the profession's knowledge base and research. Historically, the answers to these questions have differed over time, resulting in different theoretical and practice models.

A theory consists of general principles and beliefs about the answers to the fundamental questions. These general principles take into account the profession's values, experiences, goals, objectives and functions (Mathewson, 1949; Shaw, 1968, 1973). "Value considerations must be dealt with first, beginning with the question of who benefits from guidance services" (Shaw, 1973, p. 70). The rest of the questions to be answered concern the program's objectives; the assumptions underlying the objectives; the functions most appropriate for accomplishing the objectives; and, for each function, who will do it and how and when it will be done.

Shaw (1968) suggested there are two kinds of values statements: ethical and professional. Ethical values statements are expressions of professional morality. An example of an ethical values statement is that school counseling is for all children and adolescents. The Ethical Standards for School Counselors (ASCA, 2004) express values that describe some parameters about how those functions should be carried out. Professional values statements relate to professional functions and techniques. Examples of professional values statements are that "prevention is more effective than

cure" (Shaw, p. 47); that it is possible to influence children and adolescents by influencing others in their lives, such as their parents and teachers; and that guidance is not "an arm of administration" (Shaw, p. 49).

A profession's experience is contained in its history, research, and practice. Goals and objectives translate the profession's body of knowledge, its content, into the results sought for its clients – in this case, students in the schools. Shaw (1973) defined "a function [as] a description of a particular professional behavior aimed at accomplishing the stated objective of the guidance program" (p. 67).

Beliefs about the profession's values, goals, objectives, and functions are interrelated. In his 1973 work, Shaw emphasized "both the importance of and the interrelationships between values, objectives, functions, evaluation and program development" (p. xii). "Value systems should dictate the goals or objectives of the program" (Shaw, 1968, p. 32). Goals and objectives dictate the functions performed by the professionals, the roles they assume, and the methods of implementing these functions in the delivery of the program of services.

For decades the school counseling profession has been exhorted to clarify its theory (Mathewson, 1949; Shaw, 1968, 1973). In 1980, Kehas, restating the need for school counseling to identify its theoretical base, wrote, "Those in school counseling must present well-formulated, carefully elaborated statements of the unique and distinct body of knowledge and practice which they wish to have adopted in education" (p. 19). The ASCA National Standards (Campbell & Dahir, 1997) identify current school counseling content based on the profession's body of knowledge, thereby outlining the profession's goals and objectives. *The ASCA National Model: A Framework for School Counseling Programs* outlines school counselors' unique functions and suggests the organizational structure required to assist students to reach the specified content goals. These two documents describe idealized current practice based on the school counseling profession's current theory.

This section describes school counseling theory that undergirds the current Standards and Model. It explains why the various parts of the Standards and Model were chosen– that is, why this particular content was chosen as the Standards and why these particular clients, school counselor functions, delivery system, program development process and management system, and approaches to evaluation and accountability were chosen as the Model. This section identifies fundamental questions posed over time for the profession to answer. The answers to these questions are provided as principles. Support from the profession's beliefs and experiences for these principles are cited from three sources: stated ethical and professional values, historical roots, and current research.

In addition to the theory behind the model itself, a multitude of theories support the practice of counseling in general and school counseling in particular. Such theories include the psychological theories (from Freud to Glasser) that seek to explain why people act, think, and feel in the ways that they do, what counselors can do to help them attain whatever goals they are striving for, and how they can best do that. Also supporting implementation of the Standards and Model are the theories regarding various stages and facets of human growth and development (e.g., those developed by such theorists as Dewey, Piaget, Erikson, and Kohlberg).

While neither of these types of theories is addressed in this section, MacDonald and Sink (1999) make the point that it is imperative that developmental guidance and counseling programs be established on developmental theory and principles. They studied the theoretical soundness of written descriptions of model comprehensive school counseling programs. As an indicator of the models' theoretical soundness, they examined them to see if there were desired

outcomes that were constant for all students, and if there were developmental indicators that varied by grade levels according to the developmental needs of students. The models fell short in these areas, leaving the authors to conclude that "developmental assumptions and principles must be foundational to all comprehensive plans" (MacDonald and Sink, p. 425). "Guidance theory is also interwoven with definitions of education" (Kehas, 1980, p. 20).

Is education only about teaching and learning, about teachers and students? Or is it, in fact, also about guidance, about counselors and students? Is guidance also about teachers and students, and counselors and teachers? Prevailing educational theory heavily influences school counseling.

History of School Counseling Theory and Model Development

Theory Development

The seeds of the present are sown in the past. The profession has experienced a somewhat lengthy, though uneven, flow of attempts to clarify its theory base. As a profession, "guidance has drawn upon a wide variety of other disciplines in the process of its development" (Shaw, 1973, p. 5), and it "grew in response to a variety of social needs" (p. 11) identified in different eras. In the early past, the profession borrowed thoughts from "such fields as the psychology of motivation, personality, and measurement" (Shaw, 1968, p. 4). Early on, this provided the school counseling profession with "a broad armamentarium of theory, knowledge, and skills" [on the one hand, but, on the other, increasing] "the difficulty of the guidance professional's ability to obtain a specific identity with the structure of the school system" (Shaw, 1973, p. 22).

In 1949, Mathewson identified "six significant factors…converging upon a set of conclusions basic to guidance policy:

1. Psychological and philosophical concepts
2. Needs of individuals and groups
3. The institutional setting
4. Needs of society: the social setting
5. Psychology of the participants
6. Cost (p. 20)

Mathewson's use of the word "policy" implies that this work does not just contain theory but also considers practical issues, such as costs. In the "Psychological and Philosophical Concepts" section, however, he expresses such theoretical tenets as that every individual should be helped through guidance services "to become increasingly capable of creative and purposeful living" (Mathewson, 1949, p. 38); that each individual is unique; that "the guidance process cannot be limited merely to the intellectual sphere (scholastic performance) or to the vocational aspect of living (vocational guidance)" (p.38); and that "social influences surrounding and affecting the individual must be taken into account" (p. 39).

Mathewson (1949) elsewhere stated some assumptions: "It is assumed, in educational personnel work, that individual characteristics can be known and can be related to social needs and the opportunities by self-directing individuals" (p. 116). There are "educative processes…[that] help the individual in becoming more self-knowing, reliant, and directive" (p. 116). He also stated, "Fundamental assumptions in guidance and personnel work are that individuals require special professional help from time to time in understanding themselves and their situations and in

dealing with their problems; that this special help should be essentially educative in nature; that it can supply information about individual personality and about social reality which the individual can get in no other way" (Mathewson, p. 117) except through trial and error.

And Mathewson offered this basic premise: "By means of the educational process, operating on the level of conscious apprehension and purposive action, many individuals may improve their life adjustment and course of development, within the limits of personal capacity and environmental opportunity" (1949, p. 120).

With regard to the relationship between guidance and instruction, Mathewson stated the belief that "the responsibilities of the school in the guidance field should be limited to those areas of action clearly related to the overall instructional functions of the school and to the activities of individuals which occur within its jurisdiction, and should not infringe upon the educational duties of the home and of the community. The guidance and personnel service program in education should not be identified with instruction but should be intimately correlated with it" (1949, p. 122).

Another guidance theorist, Hummel (1965), observed, "In its typical aspect, guidance has subsumed a loose set of principles and techniques intended to assist an individual's educational and vocational decision-making. To construe guidance in terms of a guidance psychology [would bring] a vision of a guidance profession, rooted in education, but with its own career line, whose functions, counseling included, are rationalized by an applied science of guidance psychology. . . [the purpose of which is to] direct the process of ego development. . . [and which would be] called, simply, guidance counseling" (pp. 89-90).

In 1966, Kehas (as cited in Shaw, 1973) stated, "Progress in theory development in the last decade. . . has been exceedingly slow, despite a seeming consensus that absence of theory inhibits guidance development and research (p. 213)" (p. 33). In 1968, Shaw pointed out "that guidance has not experienced an orderly growth process directed from within the ranks of the profession, and for this reason, at least in part, there is little theory available to explain the guidance process" (p. 2). Shaw also stated, "It seems logical to assume that, without some congruence between theory and practice, we will continue to have the same confused and essentially purposeless jumble of 'services' currently being provided by guidance specialists" (p. 3).

As of 1968, Shaw summarized, "Only a few serious attempts have been made to theorize about guidance as a separate discipline within the educational framework" (p. 4). He went on, "If lack of theory has had any negative impact on practice, then examination of the roles and functions of various guidance specialists should reveal a certain amount of disagreement and confusion. This, in fact, turns out to be the case . . . [Such] literature is voluminous" (p. 6).

In 1973, Shaw stated that "global conceptualizations of the field that systematically examine values, assumptions, goals, objectives, functions, and implementation are still lacking" (p. 32). He did acknowledge that "some theory does in fact under-gird practice, even if it is only implicitly" (p. 63), suggesting that an operating theory could be identified by extrapolating the implicit values and assumptions based on stated goals and functions. Shaw cited one "obvious assumption is that guidance services can *effectively* reach all children" (p. 60).

In 1970, with the expansion of the elementary guidance movement, Dinkmeyer and Caldwell identified principles of developmental guidance. Their principles incorporated the following thoughts about guidance: it is an integral part of education in philosophy as well as through purposeful, meaningful learning experiences; it is for all students; it is targeting students' academic and social development; it is the

responsibility of counselors and teachers alike; it is a planned program structured to meet students' developmental needs and encouraging children to fully use their potential; and it is the result of cooperative efforts of teachers, counselors, parents, administrators and community members. Prophetically, Shaw (1973) identified the following:

> One of the current needs appears to be for a general descriptive model encompassing most existing theoretical formulations that would also permit the derivation of new theoretical positions…It would have the advantage of establishing a framework from which not only the more specific aspects of theory but operational guidance programs as well could be derived (p. 64).

ASCA Model Development

The 2003 ASCA National Model was preceded by efforts at delineating the best way to organize and manage professional school counselors' work. In the 1960s, ASCA began writing "role statements" that clarify professional school counselors' roles and responsibilities – their functions – at the secondary, middle/junior high and elementary levels. In 1974, and revised in 1980, ASCA published a position statement on "The School Counselor and the Guidance and Counseling Program." In 1978, and revised in 1984, ASCA published another position statement on "The School Counselor and Developmental Guidance" (Gysbers & Henderson, 2000). In 1979, ASCA promoted Standards for School Guidance and Counseling Programs.

In 1987, ASCA and the American Association for Counseling and Development co-sponsored a conference and its resulting publication, "Research and Counseling: Building Strong School Counseling Programs" (Walz, 1988). In 1988, 1993 and 1997, ASCA developed and refined its position statements on "Comprehensive Programs" and "The Professional School Counselor and Comprehensive School Counseling Programs." In 1989, *The School Counselor* (Ponzo) offered a special issue on "Beyond Role Debate to Role Implementation," in which successful efforts at program implementation were described. In 1986 and 1990, ASCA published self-audits (Campbell) and professional development guidelines for secondary, elementary and middle/junior high school counselors that suggested standards for program implementation and school counselor functions. In 1993, ASCA supported Neukrug and Barr's development of "Developmental Counseling and Guidance: A Model for Use in Your School." The April 2001 issue of *Professional School Counseling* was a special issue on "Comprehensive Guidance and Counseling Programs: Theory, Policy, Practice, and Research" (Lapan). Again, the February 2003 issue of *Professional School Counseling* was a special issue on "Comprehensive School Counseling Programs" (Kuranz).

By the titles, it can be seen that each of these steps toward today's model brought with it a refinement in the theory offered by ASCA to define the goals, objectives and functions of the work of professional school counselors through developmental, comprehensive counseling programs. The current Standards and Model are the descriptive model that Shaw envisioned.

Fundamental Questions

Today, there are seven fundamental questions that must be answered by the school counseling profession:

1. What do students need that the school counseling profession, based on its special body of knowledge, can best provide?
2. Which students benefit from activities designed to address these needs?
3. What are school counselors best qualified to do to help them?
4. How do guidance and counseling relate to the overall educational program?
5. How can guidance and counseling be provided most effectively and efficiently?

6. How is a good school counseling program developed by a school?
7. How are the results of school counselors' work measured?

Fundamental Answers

Historically

As the ASCA National Model has evolved from past content standards and program models so, too, has the theory undergirding them. Current theory is derived from the profession's answers to the fundamental questions based on past theories, practice, and research.

The history of the school counseling profession reflects influences that have caused tensions, bringing about difficult choices to be made over time. From its beginning until the 1950s, the profession was oriented toward helping clients who were facing problems and who wanted or needed adjustment to solve those problems.

From the 1960s until the present time, the profession has become more and more oriented to promoting clients' healthy growth and development. While these orientations seem to be diametrically opposed to each other, agreements in some principles are shred. Four areas of agreement were identified by Shaw (1973): (1) The basic professional concern is for the individual; (2) guidance is "an integral part of education" and "central to the educative process"; (3) guidance specialists "have special skills and training" and (4) the program of services should be evaluated "systematically and routinely" (p. 6). These values are held today.

Other, more global ideological beliefs also pose profession-related questions with multiple potential answers, and thereby cause tension. Examples of some of these ideological polarizations include the following questions: Is the profession based on a belief system of determinism, free will, or some combination of the two? Does the profession believe the focus of its work should be on individuals' needs, society's needs, or some combination of the two? Is the profession based on applications of scientific methods, humanistic approaches or on some combination of the two?

Today

The discussion of the profession's current answers to the fundamental questions follows. For each question, sub-questions are suggested that further define the fundamental question. Then relevant current ethical and/or professional values officially stated by ASCA are identified. Finally, the theoretical principles that guide the profession's current answers are presented.

These are the beliefs of the profession at the current time in answer to the fundamental questions. Supporting data from the profession's historical roots—the professional ideas that have stood the test of time—and from current research are provided. Both the history and the research help identify the body of knowledge of the profession and verify the theory expressed in the principles. The research that is included is primarily from ASCA's publication *Effectiveness of School Counseling* (ASCA, 2002-2003).

Fundamental Question No. 1: What do students need that the school counseling profession, based on its special body of knowledge, can best provide?

Subquestions

Which of these dimensions of students' development should school counselors address?

- Assistance with their vocational/career development
- Assistance with their educational development

- Assistance with their personal development
- Assistance with their social development

Ethical Values

"The professional school counselor is concerned with the educational, academic, career and personal and social needs and encourages the maximum development of every student" (A.1.b).

ASCA National Model Principles

Principle 1: As with other dimensions of their development, all children and adolescents benefit from assistance in accomplishing the age-appropriate tasks related to their academic, career and personal/social development. Personal development and social development are so intertwined that they can be combined as one content area for school counseling programs.

Historical Roots of These Principles

Overviews of the profession's history (Baker & Gerler, 2004; Bee & Boyd, 2002; Capuzzi & Gross, 2001; Gysbers, 2001; Gysbers & Henderson, 2000; Herr, 2001; Hollis, 1980; McDaniels, 1980; Mitchell & Gysbers, 1980; Myrick, 1993) describe in varying degrees of detail the impact of different eras on the school guidance and counseling profession. At its inception in the late 1800s, vocational guidance and theory was the dominating influence. In the early 1900s, psychology and testing became influences. The burst of development in psychological theories beginning in the 1930s and of developmental theories beginning in the 1950s brought additional resources to the art and science of school counselors' work. These developments brought with them, respectively, emphases in goals for students from occupational selection and placement through the 1920s, school and social adjustment from the 1930s through the 1960s, and personal development from the 1960s to the present.

19th century:

Character development was one of the goals of schooling (Sprinthall, 1977).

First half of the 20th century:

"It is quite generally conceded that vocational guidance, accompanied by its close relative educational guidance, was the first and for a long time the sole emphasis in public school guidance" (Shaw, 1973, p. 25).

In his Progressive Education movement, John Dewey emphasized "educating the 'whole' child" (Shaw, 1973, p. 24).

W.R. Harper "translated his concept of counseling into personal, social, and academic programs, in contrast with Parsons, who translated his similar concept into a system of personalized relationship centered on the choice of a vocation" (Williamson, 1965, p. 85, as cited in Hollis, 1980).

John Brewer argued that children "should be guided in all of their life's activities; the ultimate goal of guidance was unified, integrated, harmonious personalities" (Cremin, 1965, p. 6).

The Mental Hygiene Movement sought children's emotional adjustment (Shaw, 1973) and "adjustment to one's environment" (Baker & Gerler, 2004, p. 12). Mathewson (1949) cited early studies by Mooney, Combs, Rogers, and Wrenn as verifying the need and focus for guidance services.

Second half of the 20th century:

Mathewson (1949) expressed concern that "one of the most deep-seated cleavages among practitioners results from differences of opinion as to whether guidance is to be confined to 'vocational' guidance, whether it shall cover 'personal' guidance in all aspects or whether it shall be a synthesis of these two. . . We are now at a stage where fruitful syntheses of these two trends is not only possible but essential" (pp. 237-239). Mathewson offered a model in which he lists the "Types of Adjustment Problem Encountered in Guidance Work" (p. 45). He labeled the types as "personal," "social," "educational," "vocational," "avocational" and "economic" (pp. 44-45). These

descriptions are the roots of the current ASCA National Standards.

Havighurst (1952) contributed much to the field's special knowledge base in his identification of "developmental tasks" suggesting patterns of human development. He specified tasks for infancy/early childhood, middle childhood, adolescence, early adulthood, middle age, and later maturity. He identified tasks with biological bases, psychological bases, and cultural bases and identified their educational implications. As Havighurst summarized, "Developmental tasks may arise from physical maturation, from the pressure of cultural processes upon the individual, from the desires, aspirations, and values of the emerging personality, and they arise in most cases from combinations of these factors acting together" (p. 4). For adolescents, he concluded, "The principal lessons are emotional and social, not intellectual" (p. 33).

Wrenn (1962) identified the four purposes of education as interrelated continua: "vocational-intellectual, socialization-individualization" (p. 83).

During the 1960s and 1970s, the debate about the content focus and goals for guidance and counseling continued. Proponents of promoting students' personal development included Allport (1965), Rogers (1965) and leaders of the elementary guidance movement (Dinkmeyer & Caldwell, 1970). "Personal development was defined as being concerned with the continuing development of intelligence about self, with the development of self-knowledge through systematic, personal inquiry" (Kehas, 1980, p. 19). Behaviorists suggested that "almost all approaches to counseling and guidance are in agreement that the goal of counseling is to affect behavior and that behavior" development is based on laws and principles (Michael & Meyerson, 1965, pp. 40-41).

Also in the 1970s, Cottingham (1973), Mosher and Sprinthall (1970, 1971a, 1971b) and Sprinthall (1977) advocated for deliberate psychological education. The idea was promoted by counseling psychologists (Ivey, 1976; Ivey & Weinstein, 1970; Miller, 1969) and was featured in a Special Section of *The School Counselor* (Carroll, 1973) and *The Counseling Psychologist (Erickson*, 1977). It incorporated the developmental work of Piaget, Kohlberg, and Erikson and targeted students' attitudes toward learning and motivation, their self-concept and self-worth, their ability to think independently and to feel competent, and their ability to feel optimistic about their prospects as human beings (Mosher & Sprinthall, 1971a, 1971b). Sprinthall's (1977) proposal was that elementary children be assisted with their social and moral development; that adolescents be assisted with their ego, ethical, and moral development; and that college students be assisted with their career and intellectual development. As late as 1980, Sprinthall was advocating that "the psychological domains of self-development, ego maturity, competence, efficacy, moral development, and interpersonal conceptual growth need to be emphasized as the real goals of the educational enterprise" (p. 487).

In public school education in the 1970s, education of the whole child was the rallying cry. Dinkmeyer and Caldwell (1970) offered a compromise by distinguishing between goals for elementary and secondary school counseling. They stated that elementary counseling emphasizes "the development of self-understanding, problem-solving, skills in learning, and the ability to relate effectively with others and how to cope with learning tasks and peers" (p. 4). They stated that secondary counseling emphasizes the same plus it "becomes increasingly concerned about vocational and educational planning, dealing with authority figures at home and in school, and his [sic] autonomy" (p. 4). State departments of education elementary guidance consultants of the 1970s identified student needs in the areas of personal, social, career and educational development (California Department of Education, 1967).

Shaw (1973) consulted 70 guidance texts and identified several categories of objectives content areas: maximum self-development, ultimate self-direction, self-understanding, educational and vocational decision-making, adjustment, and optimum school learning. The Career Education Act of 1973 had as its goals for students to learn to lead personally satisfying and socially useful lives.

Kehas (1980) recognized that "there is no possibility for a definition of school counseling to become viable unless the educational and vocational aspects of students' lives are a primary concern" (p. 20).

As can be seen here, clearly the niche that the school guidance and counseling profession has carved out for itself is that school counselors' special body of knowledge is that of working with children's and adolescents' vocational/career, educational/academic, personal and social development. At the current time, there is consensus that all of these dimensions of human development are important and need to be addressed in balance. The Standards represent a convergence of these various theories about the content of the school counseling program.

Research Supporting These Principles

"Child development research has established the interrelationship of all human development" (Dinkmeyer & Caldwell, 1970, p. 20), for example, social factors and motivation, self-esteem and achievement, feelings/attitudes, and intellectual functioning.

"Children who display intensive striving for mastery of school tasks during the early years are likely to maintain this attitude toward school work" (Dinkmeyer & Caldwell, 1970, p. 19).

"Reviews of the research on school counseling show that the services of school counselors have a positive effect on children" (ASCA, 2002-2003). Studies address values clarification, academic achievement, classroom performance and meta-analyses of outcome research.

"Several studies find that elementary guidance activities have a positive influence on elementary students' academic achievement" (ASCA, 2002-2003).

"School counseling programs designed to teach students peer mediation skills are highly effective. In fact, studies show that students trained in peer mediation use these skills in other settings (e.g., at home)" (ASCA, 2002-2003).

"Research indicates that school counselors are effective in teaching social skills" (ASCA, 2002-2003).

"School counselors are very effective in assisting children in the area of career development" (ASCA, 2002-2003).

"Studies show effective counseling programs are based on human development theories. Program content, goals, and interventions should reflect this theoretical foundation" (ASCA, 2002-2003).

Implementation of the Standards and their related competencies must rest on applications of established theories regarding academic/educational development, career development, personal development and social development.

Fundamental Question No. 2: Which students benefit from activities designed to address these needs?

Subquestions

Should school counselors help:

- All students?
- Students at choice points in their life paths?
- Those leaving schooling and entering the work world?
- Those leaving secondary schools and moving on to post-secondary schooling?
- Those in the country's elementary schools?

Should school counselors' interventions address:

- All students' developmental needs?
- Students with needs for preventive adjustments—early identification and interventions (e.g., "at risk" students)?
- Students with needs for remedial adjustments—long-term, intense therapy (e.g., suicidal students, retained students)?

Ethical Values

The professional school counselor:

- Promotes the growth and development of each student (A.1.b).
- Provides counseling services ethically.
- Makes appropriate referrals (A.5).

ASCA National Model Principles

Principle 2: All children and adolescents can benefit from interventions designed to assist their academic, career, and personal/social development.

Principle 3: Some children/adolescents need more assistance in accomplishing the age-appropriate academic, career, and personal/social developmental tasks. These children/adolescents benefit from preventive or remedial interventions specially designed to assist them to achieve tasks appropriate to their developmental level (Closing the Gap Activities and Interventions).

Historical Roots of These Principles

Mathewson (1949) identified three "basic needs for guidance service" (p. 45). He labeled them as needs for adjustment**,** orientation, and development and described them thus: "The need for *adjustment* in academic, personal, vocational or avocational problem situations, requiring professional, individualized aid in making immediate and suitable adjustments at 'problem points.'

"The need for *orientation* toward life objectives in problems of career planning, educational programming, and direction toward long-term personal aims and values, requiring professional help in evaluating factors involved in future action.

"The need for *development* of personal effectiveness and power of self-direction, requiring professional assistance in achieving self-insight and control, and in discovering and undergoing educational experiences essential to personal growth" (p. 45).

Mathewson observed that he thought it was "desirable to emphasize developmental and preventive forms of guidance" (1949, p. 159). He also discussed the options of whether guidance should be offered selectively focused on special problems or developmentally on "all needs of individual and social development" (p. 240). He promoted a "synthesis" (p. 240) of the two.

In laying out the developmental tasks, Havighurst (1952) made the point that there is "a long series of tasks to learn, where learning well brings satisfaction and reward, while learning poorly brings unhappiness and social disapproval" (p. 2). He also made the following point:

> The tasks that are the most completely based upon biological motivation, such as learning to walk, show the smallest

> cultural variation. Others, and especially those that grow principally out of social demands on the individual, show great variation among various cultures (p. 30).

Havighurst's premise is that it is an educational responsibility to help young people achieve the developmental tasks, including the personal, social, career and educational tasks, as successfully as possible.
As a result of the work of the commission formed by the American Personnel and Guidance Association to study guidance in America, Wrenn (1962) advocated for "developmental rather than remedial goals" (p. 14). He also suggested two principles for determining with whom to work:

> (1) To work with those students whose developmental needs are greatest, who have most difficulty in achieving a sense of personal identity and achievement, rather than devoting major time to crisis situations in the lives of relatively few; and
> (2) to work with those students for whom full understanding and motivation will mean the most to themselves and to society, those who will contribute most significantly to the societal welfare of their period (pp. 73-74).

The commission promoted selective work with students who were most in need of help in successfully achieving developmental tasks, and those who were most apt to contribute the most good to society as a whole.

Shaw (1968) suggested the following:

> A rule-of-thumb limit of 10% of the counselor's time should constitute the maximum spent in carrying out remedial kinds of functions with [problem children]. To spend more time on such efforts would be to frustrate the preventive-developmental emphasis of this point of view (p. 56).

He described "problem children" as those who are underachieving, potential dropouts, those with discipline problems, those experiencing emergencies or those needing referral to other agencies.

The debate of whether guidance staff should serve all or a few students continued in the 1970s. That decade brought an increase in recognition of students with special needs through the 1975 Individuals with Disabilities in Education Act and other pieces of federal legislation. Dinkmeyer and Caldwell (1970) felt strongly that school guidance and counseling "must be built on a comprehensive, research-oriented, functional approach to the developmental needs of today's children and youth" (p. v). The primary purpose is "to promote human growth in a developmental sequence" (p. 13).

Shaw (1973) defined the developmental approach as implying "that the aim of guidance should be to assist children to develop normally in contrast to emphasizing remedial or therapeutic activities with children who have already developed problems" (p. 26). In his study of 70 guidance texts mentioned previously, Shaw identified that most defined guidance as "services for all children" (p. 35).

Cottingham (1973) wrote that "the nature of psychological education assumes that the primary goal is the personal development of the clients through educative or preventive experiences" (p. 341). In the later 1970s, Division 17 of the American Psychological Association identified three primary roles for counseling psychologists that were consistent with the notion of deliberate psychological education: a remedial or rehabilitative role, a preventive role and/or an educative and developmental role (Ivey, 1976). Sprinthall (1980) identified a wealth of new materials that "provide curriculum guides and new information along with requisite new instructional strategies" (p. 488) for "giving psychology away" (Miller, 1969, p. 1071) to all students.

Myrick (1993) defined four possible approaches to school guidance and counseling: crisis, remedial, preventive, and

developmental. Each approach suggests the choices to be made among the categories of students to serve: those in need of crisis interventions, those in need of remedial interventions, those in need of preventive interventions, or those in need of developmental interventions.

Research Supporting These Principles

"Children who are experiencing family problems report being helped by school counselors" (ASCA, 2002-2003).

"School counseling programs have significant influence on aggressive and hostile behaviors as well as discipline problems" (ASCA, 2002-2003).

"Health and mental health care services can play an important role in violence prevention at all levels (primary, secondary and tertiary), including preventing problem behaviors from developing; identifying and serving specific, at-risk populations; and reducing the deleterious effects of violence on victims and witnesses" (ASCA, 2002-2003).

"School counselors were effective in reducing victimization by assisting victimized children, reducing bullying behaviors and modifying the school climate and structure" (ASCA, 2002 2003).

"Child group interventions such as guidance/educational, counseling/interpersonal problem-solving, and psychotherapy/personality reconstruction have shown positive results in the school setting" (ASCA, 2002-2003).

"School counseling interventions have reported success for helping students reduce test anxiety" (ASCA, 2002-2003).

"School counseling interventions have reported success for children with Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder" (ASCA, 2002-2003).

"A developmental program is proactive and preventive, helping students acquire the knowledge, skills, self-awareness and attitudes necessary for successful mastery of normal developmental tasks.

Developmentally based programs increase the visibility of the counseling program and ensure that more students are served (Myrick; Shaw & Goodyear). There is also substantial empirical evidence that these programs promote student development and academic success" (ASCA, 2002-2003).

"School counselors have proven effective in preventing students from committing suicide. The most effective prevention programs start with younger students and portray suicide as a mental health problem, not a dramatic way of ending a life. It is essential that counselors involve the parents of troubled students in the counseling process" (ASCA, 2002-2003).

"School counselors in collaborative efforts can implement both systemic and programmatic changes in schools and communities to prevent students from dropping out of school" (ASCA, 2002-2003).

"Studies on high school attrition indicate that preventive counseling, occurring before students are in crisis, reduces the risk of these students dropping out later" (ASCA, 2002-2003).

"Counseling decreases classroom disturbances. Counseling services support teachers in the classroom and enable teachers to provide quality instruction designed to assist students in achieving high standards. Students in schools that provide counseling services indicated that their classes were less likely to be interrupted by other students, and that their peers behaved better in school" (ASCA, 2002-2003).

Fundamental Question No. 3: What are school counselors best qualified to do to help them?

Subquestions

Should school counselors:

- Employ educative strategies?
- Employ psychological strategies?
- Work directly with students?
- Work indirectly on behalf of students with teachers, parents, administrators and community members?
- Work with students individually?
- Work with students in small groups?
- Work with students in classroom-sized groups?
- Work with students in large groups?

When working directly with students, should school counselors:

- Advise students?
- Place them?
- Teach them?
- Assist them?
- Guide them?
- Counsel them?
- Conduct therapy with them?

When working indirectly, should school counselors:

- Consult with teachers, parents, administrators and/or community members?
- Coordinate resources for them?

Ethical Values

The professional school counselor:

- Provides individual and group counseling in adherence to ethical standards (A.2, A.3, A.6).
- Makes referrals (A.5).
- Interprets assessments and adheres to professional standards regarding assessments and evaluation (A.9).
- Cooperates with parents in adherence to legal and ethical standards (Section B).
- Maintains professional relationships with colleagues (Section C)
- Works within his or her areas of qualification (D.1.e).
- Assists in developing educational procedures and programs to meet students' developmental needs (D.1.g).
- Collaborates with others in the school and community (D.2).
- Functions within the boundaries of individual professional competence and accepts responsibility for the consequences of his or her actions (E.1.a).

Professional Values

ASCA's (1997a) *Position Statement: Comprehensive Programs* states that the professional school counselor's role includes individual and small group counseling; large group guidance; teaching skill development in academic, career, and personal/social areas; consultation and case management; and coordination, management, and evaluation of the school counseling program. In addition, the statement suggests that other "indirect services" school counselors carry out are participating in school site planning and partnering with post-secondary institutions, businesses, and community agencies.

Certification of school counselors is a function of state government, so there are variations from state to state. Some consensus has been arrived at nationally, however, by national certification and accreditation agencies regarding the basic training that school counselors need to have at this point in time. While named differently by the different certification agencies, the primary content suggested includes human growth and development, fundamentals of school counseling, student competencies, social and cultural contexts, counseling theories and techniques, consultation with other adults in students' lives, student assessment, program development, implementation and evaluation, professional orientation, practicum internship, and information resources and technology (Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs, n.d.;

National Board for Certified Counselors, n.d.; National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, n.d.).

ASCA National Model Principles

Principle 4: School counselors are qualified to make contributions to all children's and adolescents' development in the areas of academic (educational), career and personal/social development. School counselors are state credentialed; are specialists in child and adolescent development; and are trained in learning styles, classroom behavior management, curricula and instruction, student assessment and achievement, and/or have teaching experience.

There is a connection between required school counselor education, training, and experience and school counseling in practice.

Principle 5: School counselors can design and deliver interventions to meet students' developmental needs and to meet students' needs for prevention and remediation, thereby helping to close gaps between specific groups of students and their peers.

Principle 6: School counselors' interventions in students' academic, career, and personal/social development assist students to acquire and apply skills, attitudes, and knowledge that promote development in those three dimensions of human growth.

Through direct services to students, school counselors assist all students' development and thereby facilitate their academic success.

School counselors provide individual and group counseling addressing children's and adolescents' concerns related to their developmental tasks, including personal and relationship issues.

Principle 7: School counselors can assist other adults to enhance their work with students' academic/educational, career, and personal-social development, and for the purpose of removing personal barriers to individual students' success.

Through indirect services, such as advocacy and consultation, school counselors assist in the removal of barriers to that success.

School counselors are uniquely positioned to advocate for students' success in school and to assist in the removal of barriers to individuals' success.

Historical Roots of These Principles

In 1949, training for the general guidance counselor was "a combination of modern educational method, educational and guidance psychology, and counseling technique. . . [making] appraisals of personality" and included occupational information and analysis, measurement and statistics and knowledge of records (Mathewson, pp. 185-186). Counselors of the time also were to be "competent to organize, administer, and evaluate guidance programs. . . [and have] sufficient knowledge of the symptoms of pathological conditions to be able to refer" to specialists (p. 186).

In 1965, Lortie discussed in an article about the professionalization of school counseling (interestingly titled "Administrator, Advocate, or Therapist?") some of the issues he felt needed resolution by the profession for it to be a profession. First, he mentioned the "development and diffusion of collective beliefs" (pp. 128-129. Then he asked three other basic questions: "(1) Who will be admitted? (2) How will candidates be prepared for practice? And (3) How can members of the profession be induced to comply with its standards of conducts?" (p. 129). He closed his points with, "The group must agree on what is important to do and how it should be done in specific terms" (p. 131).

Baker and Gerler (2004) have summarized basic interventions from the profession's early history: "Guidance, from which school counseling evolved, had several influences

including vocational guidance, psychometrics, mental health, and clinical psychology" (p. 3). Diagnosis of learning difficulties was part of counselors' role from its inception (Hollis, 1980).

Mathewson (1949) described the methods of guidance as including "interviewing, individual appraisal, biographical recording, case study, counseling, special types of research, organizational administration and coordination" (p. 121). He also reiterated that school guidance "practice be seen as developmental and as educative" in addition to the responsibilities of individual appraisal (p. 124). He envisioned school counselors working as community liaisons, as consultants with other professionals and parents about personal and social issues, and as teachers and consultants with teachers about related classroom instruction.

Beginning around 1960, there was "a growing sense of professional identity among the various guidance professions, particularly school counselors" (Shaw, 1973, p. 18), but this sense of identity was fraught with questions about the true identity of school counselors. Many, many attempts were made to define their roles and functions, but the debate continued over whether school counselors' primary efforts should be in counseling emotionally unstable individuals at one end of the continuum or in teaching and collaborating with teachers and administrators in the provision of developmentally appropriate guidance-related curricula to all students at the other end (Shaw, 1968).

Wrenn (1962) proposed "not only that the counselor is the focal point in the guidance program, but that counseling is his [sic] major job" (p. 163). He also recommended that school counselors assist students with their educational and vocational plans; be educated about student development and psychological appraisal; consult with parents, teachers and administrators; research data about the student and share that information with school leaders; and coordinate resources between the school and the community.

In *Guidance: An Examination* (Mosher, Carle & Kehas, 1965), it was apparent that some lack of role definition or perception of a cogent role was a problem for school counseling. Shoben (1965) perceived "the traditional role [as that of] the counselor of the obstreperous, the advisor on college selection and vocational matters, and the purveyor of tests and occupational information" (p. 122). As Lortic (1965) phrased it, "the current position of the counselor contains diverse, contradictory functions" (p. 128). He advised that "counselors should select the function, or functions, they wish to serve and build a structure appropriate to it or to them" (p. 142). In 1966, an ASCA-Association for Counselor Education and Supervision committee adopted the "three C's" – counseling, consulting, coordinating – to define the work of elementary school counselors.

Shaw (1968) stated,

> Present guidance programs reflect lack of purpose. Many things are being done; tests are given and interpreted, group guidance classes are held, educational objectives are discussed with students, parents are increasingly included in guidance activities, and still such programs are often seen as unrelated to the basic educational endeavor by teachers and laymen [sic] alike. Guidance specialists are increasingly involved in non-guidance activities (p. 3).

Shaw suggested that the ASCA make the decision as to the right roles and functions of school counselors, which ASCA began doing.

The debate continued in the 1970s, but many of the profession's theorists supported the developmental and preventive approach Dinkmeyer and Caldwell 1970) explained that "the guidance process focuses on restoring and facilitating growth factors. . .

The focus here is on assisting the child with the developmental tasks" (p. 47). They continued, "Guidance is concerned with personalizing and humanizing the educational experience" (p. 53) for students. Shaw (1973) projected that professional guidance specialists' "skills will be applied primarily toward the accomplishment of goals related to the affective domain" (p. 10) as described by Krathwohl, Bloom and Masia (1964). He contended that teachers' responsibilities were aimed at the cognitive domain and at specific content, and that guidance specialists' responsibilities were aimed at the affective domain and at process.

Cottingham (1973) conceptualized it a bit differently: "The guidance function facilitates [the integration of symbolic (intellectual, academic) learning and personal development] by focusing on personal concerns in the interaction of cognition and affect" (p. 342). He also described "public discontent with school guidance services.

Such criticisms have focused on the 'adjustment' emphasis and the preoccupation of guidance personnel with administrative or college placement functions" (p. 340).

In 1973, Aubrey reminded the profession that "a curriculum for guidance – a sequential program of planned learning experiences for students, led by counselors – is nothing new to education. Historically, this approach was termed group guidance, and frequently teachers were selected to conduct this activity through homerooms or class units" (p. 348).

Cottingham (1973) stated, "Initially it may be difficult to change the counselor's own primary emphasis on counseling to developing preventive guidance through curriculum avenues" (p. 343). He also worried that "counselors who favor educational placement, vocational development, or test administration may be reluctant to inject personal growth elements into these traditional task-centered relationships" (p. 343). From his review of the 70 guidance texts, the functions that Shaw (1973) listed as those of school counselors for the 1970s were counseling, consultation, testing, curriculum development, provision of information, in-service training, use of records, articulation, referral, evaluation, and research.

As well, the issue of non-guidance activities was still present. Aubrey (1973) stated that recent studies have "shown that almost 50 percent of the secondary counselor's work lies in areas closely related to clerical and administrative responsibilities" (p. 347).

Shaw (1973) identified other issues needing to be addressed: supervision of guidance specialists in the schools, professionalization and identity, and the specialist in individual counseling versus the generalist working to humanize education.

Research Supporting These Principles

"Reviews of the research on school counseling show that the services of school counselors have a positive effect on children" (ASCA, 2002-2003). Studies address guidance interventions, school violence and the learning environment.

"School counselors help connect the family as a whole to the educational process" (ASCA, 2002-2003).

"School counselors were effective in reducing victimization by assisting victimized children, reducing bullying behaviors and modifying the school climate and structure" (ASCA, 2002-2003).

"School counselors in collaborative efforts can implement both systemic and programmatic changes in schools and communities to prevent students from dropping out of school" (ASCA, 2002-2003).

Fundamental Question No. 4: How do guidance and counseling relate to the overall educational program?

Subquestions

Should the guidance and counseling program:

- Be a separate and distinct entity housed in the school?
- Be an integral part of the educational program?
- Be an integral part of the school?

Ethical Values

The professional school counselor assists in developing curricular and environmental conditions appropriate for the school and community (D.1.g).

ASCA National Model Principles

Principle 8: School counselors work with others in the school system on behalf of students to support accomplishment of the system's mission and to assist in the removal of systemic barriers to student success.

School counselors are integral to the total educational program.

School counselors can be catalysts for educational change and leaders in educational reform.

School counselors advocate for, and consult to assist in, the improvement of the school climate.

Historical Roots of These Principles

The profession's forefathers who have influenced school counseling envisioned the primary purposes of education globally, placing school counselors' goals and functions at the heart of that mission.

Havighurst (1952) clarified that "education may be conceived as the effort of the society, through the school, to help the individual achieve certain of his [sic] developmental tasks" (p. 5). To accomplish developmental tasks most effectively, the activities designed to assist children and adolescents should be relevantly timed. "When the body is ripe, and society requires, and the self is ready to achieve a certain task, the teachable moment has come" (p. 5). School counselors as knowledgeable of developmental tasks, and as partly responsible for assisting children and adolescents to accomplish personal, social, career and educational tasks, bring this information to school site and guidance program planning.

In 1955, the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development's (ASCD) annual *Yearbook* centered around the interrelationship between guidance and instruction. Periodically since then, ASCD has emphasized this focus. In the 1970s it was labeled the "hidden curriculum." Today, ASCD's position statements reflect its belief in working with the "whole child." Specifically, its position statement on "Classroom Climate" states that "schools at all levels should strive to have an intellectually stimulating and psychologically supportive classroom climate. There should be. . . a balanced emphasis on the learner's social, emotional, physical, and intellectual development" (ASCD, 1960, 1963, 1981).

Michael and Meyerson (1965) offered behaviorist principles to guide school counselors' work. They believed that "behavior is controlled by its environmental consequences and that an effective procedure for producing behavioral change is the manipulation of the environment so as to create consequences that will produce the desired behavior" (p. 41).

Shaw (1968) stated the purposes of education: (1) "transmittal of knowledge and skills"; (2) "preparation of the learner to actively and effectively appropriate new knowledge and skills"; and (3) application of "skills to practical problems, problem solving, or new learning situations" (p. 45).

He envisioned that school counselors should work with parents and then "work directly with children when children themselves become a significant determinant of the learning environment" (p. 55).

Dinkmeyer and Caldwell (1970) stated, "Developmental guidance is the organized effort of the school to personalize and humanize the educational process for all students" (p. 3). Stated somewhat differently, they mentioned that "guidance is that part of the educational programs which emphasizes the individual" (p. 7). They clarified differences between guidance and instruction in terms of the subject matter, goals, nature of the process, sources of content material and degree of self-direction.

Dinkmeyer and Caldwell concluded, "The guidance function is an integral part of the total school program. . .The purpose of the guidance function is to develop educational experiences and processes which seek to give personal meaning to school experiences to meet both individual needs and societal expectations" (p. 55).

Cottingham (1973) identified a significant educational trend with implications for school counselors: "greater demands for more humanized and individualized educational systems" (p. 340). Mosher and Sprinthall (1971a) stated that school counselors' "central objective, then, is to create curriculum materials and methods of instruction that will facilitate personal and human development for *all* pupils" (p. 10). They continued to make the case for "primary prevention," educative work versus "secondary prevention," therapy, and counseling. They insisted that school guidance work is best when it is "educative (developmental), not remedial" (p. 10).

Cottingham (1973) went on to state that "another changing attitude is toward broadening the counselor's responsibilities beyond the counseling relationship to embrace more environmental change efforts" (p. 342). He referenced Ivey and Weinstein (1970), who stated, "The typical school counselor may envision a duality in role which could represent a unique opportunity for a broader and yet more significant contribution to education" (p. 344). Aubrey (1973), in describing "Organizational Victimization of School Counselors," stated that "the central task facing all school counselors at this critical juncture in our profession is how to deal with school rigidity and bureaucracy in order to attain guidance outcomes" (p. 346). Menacker (1976) promoted his theory of "Activist Guidance" (p. 381).

Sprinthall (1977) reviewed several studies that document the "overall failures of schooling. The longer pupils remain in schools, the worse off they are" (p. 53). The findings suggested that "negative self-concepts increase, intrinsic motivation declines, passive learning increases, individual differences decline and cognitive development prematurely stabilizes" (p. 53). His whole premise was that the primary role of school counselors is to share their skills and knowledge with teachers to enhance the learning environment. In 1980, Sprinthall continued to believe that "we need to encourage adoption of curriculum materials designed to promote intellectual and psychological growth simultaneously. Further, we need to use our counseling and communication skills to improve the interaction patterns in the classrooms. Essentially this is the crucial concept of primary prevention" (p. 488).

Kehas (1980) summarized:

> To work as a school counselor—from out of the context of psychological education, for example—calls for increased involvement with a small number of students, and with a larger number of teachers, parents, and community people. It calls for the development of a guidance curriculum, for the creation of opportunities through small groups and classrooms (often in collaboration with teachers) for students to come to know the kind of self they are building and have built, and to confront

themselves with the meanings they attribute to their experiencing, and the consequences such attributions will have on their future self (pp. 19-20).

Myrick (1993) stated that school guidance is a "force within the school curriculum or instructional process that aims at the maximum development of individual potentialities. In this sense, guidance is a general educational philosophy" (p. 2).

Fundamental Question No. 5: How can guidance and counseling be provided most effectively and efficiently?

Subquestions

Should the guidance and counseling program:

- Be a schoolwide program?
- Be the counseling department's program?
- Consist of a set of services geared at the various dimensions of students' growth and development?
- Be a program organized according to the activities?
- Be a comprehensive program incorporating activities that address the different levels of student needs (developmental, preventive, remedial) and that call for school counselors to use their array of functions?

ASCA National Model Principles

Principle 9: The work of school counselors should be organized as a program.

Principle 10: The delivery system dividing program activities into the t program components of guidance curricula, individual student planning, responsive services, and system support is the most effective and efficient means for organizing the program.

Principle 11: The four program activity components described as the delivery system for the model school counseling program include all the means to impact students' academic, career and personal/social development: guidance curricula, individual student planning, responsive services, and system support.

Principle 12: School counseling program activities can be designed that effectively impact all students' academic, career and personal/social development and that help those students whose healthy academic and professional-technical, life and career, and/or personal and social development is threatened or interrupted.

Principle 13: Intentionally designed interventions targeting identified needs or specified goals and objectives are more effective than interventions that are not intentionally designed.

Historical Roots of These Principles

Most of the early work on organization of school counselors' work revolved around the relationships between counselors and other pupil personnel service providers, but program language did appear from time to time (Gysbers & Henderson, 2000).

According to Mitchell and Gysbers (1980), "Glanz (1961) identified and described several models for organizing guidance in a comprehensive way" (p. 26). Lortie (1965) observed that "members of the occupation will be forced to resolve thorny issues in moving toward the professional model for work organization" (p. 128). Shaw (1968) recommended that "frameworks" (p. 32) to guide district-wide program implementation be established.

In 1970, Dinkmeyer and Caldwell indicated how muddy the waters were by equating the "guidance program" with the counselor functions (i.e., pupil appraisal and child study, teacher consultation, counseling,

classroom guidance, parent consultation, curriculum involvement, in-service education for staff, and administration and coordination).

For Shaw (1973), "the program concept infers goals and focus. . . Guidance [is] defined as a program implemented by professional specialists within the school system whose primary task is the application of skills and theory derived from the behavioral sciences" (p. 10). Mitchell and Gysbers (1980) wrote, "by 1970, substantial preliminary work had been done in developing basic vocabulary and the other necessary constructs to define and implement guidance in systematic, comprehensive, developmental terms, as a program in its own right rather than as services ancillary to other programs" (p. 26).

In 1980, Kehas, representing those who believed school counselors should define their purpose and align their functions to those purposes, asked, "What services–let alone how many–can one counselor deliver to 400 students?" (p. 19).

Mathewson (1949) identified "two common faults of guidance organization in the past. . . [1] failure to make a distinction between the guidance process and the instructional process. . . [and 2] the jurisdiction of the guidance director with that of the administrator" (p. 139). He also offered this premise for tying guidance theory and practice together: "Institutions providing guidance services, or aiming to provide such services, should understand clearly their purposes and responsibilities and adapt their guidance procedures accordingly" (p. 73). He continued, "Unification of related activities in guidance is essential in order to properly serve the interrelated needs of the individual. Such unification may be effected by suitable organizational methods" (p. 73).

Mathewson (1949) envisioned a guidance program with the following characteristics: that it be for students in nursery school through adult education; that it be "infused in every school activity and closely correlated with instruction"; that it be identifiable and practiced by professional specialists; that it be coordinated across all phases of the guidance program with "all component functions being directed at the same objectives"; that it focus "on the problems and personality of the individual students"; and that it seek "to foster self-understanding, development, and direction, socially oriented" (pp. 126-127).

In brief, the structure for the guidance program as Mathewson envisioned it would provide "individual casework" to assist students with needs for educational, occupational, and personal-social orientation, progress, and adjustment.

Individual casework included the functions of individual inventory and appraisal, case study, counseling, record keeping, testing, research, referral, and maintaining liaisons with community members and consultative liaisons with professional workers and parents. Mathewson's program vision also incorporated "group work" to assist students with their personal and social development and occupational adjustment. Group work included consultation between guidance personnel and instructional leaders, guidance personnel perhaps acting as instructors, research, organization of community education programs, and coordination of all phases of the guidance program. (Although described and divided differently from the current model's four components, the program does include activities that fit into the four components.)

Mathewson (1949) also described "Key Concepts in Guidance Organization" (p. 140). These concepts were "existing conditions," "clarity of aim," "definitive outline of functions," "allocation of responsibilities," "lines or organizational relationship," "adequate implementation," and" evaluation and growth" (p. 141).

In the debates of the 1970s and 1980s, proponents for developmental work envisioned school counselors' work as centered around classroom guidance and instruction, and consultation and

coordination with teachers regarding guidance content and classroom climate. Proponents for "adjustive" work, serving students with needs for preventive or remedial interventions, envisioned school counselors' work as centered around counseling, case studies, and consultation with teachers and administrators regarding problems affecting students in their classrooms. Proponents for career and educational guidance envisioned school counselors' work as being a combination of developmental and adjustive work, but focused on individual students.

By the 1980s, the "comprehensive guidance program" was conceptualized and described by Gysbers and Moore (1981). By the late 1980s, the model was further developed around "three elements: content, organizational framework, and resources" (Gysbers & Henderson, 2000, p. 52). "The organizational framework contains three structural components (definition, rationale, and assumptions) and four program components (guidance curriculum, individual planning, responsive services, and system support)" (p. 52). This framework provided a method for organizing school counselors' work according to all of the activities – developmental, preventive, and remedial – they were doing, and thereby helped school counselors manage their programs.

By the end of the 1990s, 34 or more states had adopted the comprehensive guidance program model (Sink & MacDonald, 1998). The development of this model was based on a study of what school counselors were actually doing – the functions and activities they were performing – and grouping them according to the categories that emerged from this study. After 20-plus years of implementation of this model, it is apparent that the legitimate activities that school counselors do fit into these four program components. Activities that counselors do that do not fit into this organizational scheme are, in fact, not legitimate guidance and counseling activities.

Shaw recognized a problem with guidance programs in 1968: "They attempt to do almost everything represented by the general model rather than zeroing in on a specific goal" (p. 31). In 1973 he explained that "the program idea implies the existence of a focused, consistent, articulated effort to achieve certain pre-identified and agreed-upon ends" (pp. 79-80). With the goals and steps toward those goals identified, objectives may be written. "Objectives must be stated in terms of the ways in which the behavior of the ultimate client, the student, is to be influenced or changed" (Shaw, 1973, p. 35).

During the 1970s, the establishment of behavioral objectives to focus counselors' work was prevalent. Shaw (1973) outlined some basic criteria for objectives: They should be stated clearly in words with specific meaning and, thus, definable and measurable; they should be related to general educational purposes; and they should be capable of accomplishment. The assumption or idea here is that with clear intentions, activities were more likely to be useful in helping students move in directions that they needed to move. Many efforts were begun to develop scopes and sequences for guidance content. These products varied dependent on the points of view of the authors, with varying emphases placed on academic/education, career, and/or personal and social development. Development of these continued through the 1980s and 1990s.

Research Supporting These Principles

"Reviews of the research on school counseling show that the services of school counselors have a positive effect on children" (ASCA, 2002-2003). Studies address the impact of comprehensive guidance and counseling programs. "Quantitative analyses of research (meta-analyses) also substantiate the beneficial effects of school counseling programs" (ASCA, 2002-2003).

Fundamental Question No. 6: How is a good school counseling program developed by a school?

Subquestions

Should a guidance program be developed:

- Locally?
- At a district level?
- At a state level?
- Spontaneously or reactively in response to immediate needs?
- Planfully and intentionally in response to deliberate decisions?

If planned fully, what process steps are required?

- Planning?
- Designing?
- Implementing?
- Evaluating?
- Enhancing?

Can evaluation be a separate process from the others? How are the desired outcomes for students determined? Unilaterally by the school counseling staff? Collaboratively?

If collaboratively, with:

- Teachers?
- Administrators?
- Parents?
- Students?
- Community members?
- Other school specialists?

Once developed, should implementation of the program be managed? If so, by whom?

- Counselors?
- Principals?
- Planning committees?

If so, through what organizational management and accountability practices?

Ethical Values

The professional school counselor:

- Monitors personal functioning and effectiveness and does not participate in any activity that may lead to inadequate professional services or harm to a client.
- Assists in developing (1) curricula and environmental conditions appropriate for the school and community; (2) educational procedures and programs to meet the counselees' developmental needs; and (3) a systematic evaluation process for comprehensive school counseling programs, services and personnel. The counselor is guided by the findings of the evaluation data in planning programs and services (D.1.e.).

ASCA National Model Principles

Principle 14: A systematic approach to developing the school counseling program (i.e., planning and building the foundation, designing the delivery system, implementing and monitoring the program, holding program staff accountable, and evaluating the program) ensures its effectiveness and relevancy.

Principle 15: Collaborative, cooperative planning with parents/guardians, teachers, administrators, staff and community members in developing a school counseling program results in the program being effective and an integral part of the total school mission.

School system goals are equity, access, and academic success for students. School counseling program goals and objectives lead to increased equity, access, and academic success for students by being aligned with a school's mission.

Principle 16: Effective local school counseling programs are designed with awareness of local demographics and political conditions, and on needs assessments based on locally gathered data.

Principle 17: Establishing priorities for and recognizing parameters within the program

are critical to effective management and implementation of school counseling programs.

Principle 18: There are organizational procedures that school counselors can use to manage implementation of their programs for effectiveness, efficiency, and relevancy to the school.

A management system is needed to ensure effective and efficient program delivery.

Principle 19: Accountability for student results, school counselor performance, and program completeness is essential to ensuring the effectiveness and relevance of school counseling programs, and it requires the collection and use of data.

Principle 20: Leadership for school counseling programs is a shared responsibility between school counselors and school principals.

Administrative support and provision of resources are necessary for successful implementation of programs.

Historical Roots of These Principles

Gysbers (2004) traced the evolution of accountability and evaluation. He found that, based on the literature reviewed, the answer is that accountability is not a new phenomenon at all – it has been of concern almost from the very beginning of the institutionalization of guidance and counseling in the schools. In addition, the need for and importance of accountability for outcomes has been stressed in every decade since the 1920s. Over the years, distinctions were made among accountability for student results, evaluation of student results, evaluation of program activities, and evaluation of a whole program. Taxonomies of objectives were identified, and several large and legitimate studies were conducted that began to demonstrate the positive impact of guidance and counseling.

Mathewson (1949) also theorized about how a guidance program should be organized. He stated that it should be "an integral part of the educative process"; that "it is necessary…to procure the cooperation of school workers"; and that the program should emerge from the study and planning of the school's own personnel" (p. 135). "Once the conception is accepted that the school is the medium for the personal development of individuals, socially directed, in cooperation with home and community, the rest should follow" (pp. 263-264).

Mathewson (1949) also suggested that the "leadership in such study and planning may well come from a trained personnel worker [school counselor]" (p. 136). He recommended that the participants in the process of getting the program organized include "all persons, or representatives of such persons, affected by the program – students, teachers, activity leaders, administrators, parents, citizens, specialists" (p. 142). He suggested the program needs to have "administrative authority," to provide "service based on needs," to be "gradually developed" and to be built on aspects of the model that exist in the current program (p. 142).

Shaw (1968) identified criteria for selection of guidance objectives: They should (1) "be stated in clear or unequivocal terms"; (2) "be related to the basic purpose of public education"; and (3) "be capable of accomplishment" (pp. 23-24). Shaw (1973) also suggested that "having decided on objectives it is necessary to examine the assumptions on which objectives are based in order to see if one is willing to live with the assumptions inherent in the proposed objectives" (p. 69).

During the 1960s, professional educators began discussing the means to effect systematic program change (Shaw, 1973). Too, a renewed emphasis on accountability brought this influence to guidance (Gysbers

& Henderson, 2000). Shaw (1968) recommended that guidance program development be district-wide and that the participants in defining the program include principals, central office administrative staff members with links to guidance, teachers, and guidance specialists (school counselors, school psychologists, and school social workers).
During the 1970s, an appreciation for systems thinking influenced school guidance and counseling. Systems thinking entails assessing needs, establishing goals and behavioral objectives, selecting activities to meet the objectives, evaluating the effectiveness of the activities and repeating the cycle – that is, planning, designing, implementing, evaluating and then returning to planning and repeating the cycle. "As the 1970s continued to unfold, professional literature devoted to the why and how of developing and implementing systematic accountable guidance programs continued to be written" (Gysbers & Henderson, 2000). This converged with what Shaw (1973) identified as "a new method of budgeting" (p. 48). This planned program budgeting system based budget appropriations on clear and distinct program plans.

In 1980, Mitchell and Gysbers stated that "a systematic, comprehensive guidance program is based on and is shaped by a number of assumptions" (p. 27). These assumptions, paraphrased, are that the program is (1) student-centered, focused on student needs and desired outcome; (2) of benefit to all students; (3) consistent across all student populations; (4) articulated throughout student enrollment; (5) developmental; (6) involving of students in their own development; (7) growth- and development-oriented rather than problem-oriented; and (8) a means for counselors to be accountable for student outcomes. Mitchell and Gysbers (1980) also identified the basis of the comprehensive, developmental guidance program. They described the advances in and convergence of developmental theory and research that led the school guidance profession to think in terms of and begin to specify the content and objectives for guidance. This was accompanied by the accountability/ evaluation movement that led to thinking in terms of student accomplishment of those objectives, and the developments in systems thinking that led to understanding the process needed for planning, designing, implementing, and evaluating the program for helping students attain those objectives.

Gysbers and Moore's book *Improving Guidance Programs* (1981) outlined a systems approach process for developing and implementing comprehensive school guidance programs. Guidance departments in state departments of education continued to work within their states to foster application of this systematic process for improving school guidance and counseling programs.

Johnson and Johnson (2003) stated that "accountability is now focused on student results" (p. 181).

Research Supporting These Principles

In the early 1990s, Fairchild, among others, conducted studies, made recommendations, and stressed the importance of school counselors being accountable for their time, accessibility, and timeliness of responses (cited in Henderson & Gysbers, 1998)

Fundamental Question No. 7: How are the results of school counselors' work measured?

Subquestions

Should the results of school counselors' work be measured in light of:

- Student achievement of guidance outcomes?
- Student achievement of instructional outcomes?
- Quality of performance of counselor functions?
- Quantity of functions performed by counselors?
- Quantity of activities provided?
- Quality of activities provided?
- Adherence to the standards for program implementation? For the program as a whole or for each component? How should different evaluation questions be answered appropriately?

Ethical Values

The professional school counselor assists in developing a systematic evaluation process for comprehensive school counseling programs, services, and personnel. The counselor is guided by the findings of the evaluation data in planning programs and services (D.1.e).

ASCA National Model Principles

Principle 21: Having benefited from school counselors' interventions, children and adolescents are more ready to learn academically and to be successful in school.

Principle 22: Explicit statements of the results desired for students better ensure the achievement of those results.

Principle 23: Evaluation of student results, school counselor performance, and program completeness is essential to ensuring the effectiveness and relevance of school counseling programs, and it requires the collection and use of data.

Principle 24: Evaluation of student results is based on established standards for the measurement of student development, growth, and change.

Principle 25: Evaluation of school counselors' performance is based on established standards for school counseling practice.

Principle 26: Evaluation of program completeness is based on alignment with the ASCA National Model and the local program design.

Principle 27: The purpose of evaluation is improvement.

Through evaluation, what is effective and what is not effective in a program are identified, thereby indicating what in a program needs to be changed.

Historical Roots of These Principles

Student results have been hard to identify in school guidance programs because the emphasis of the profession has been more on the counselors' roles and functions than on the anticipated outcomes for students from experiencing these functions. In 1961, Wellman and Twiford stated "that the one appropriate measure of the value of a guidance program was its impact on students" (cited in Gysbers & Henderson, 2000, p. 19). With regard to evaluation, Shaw (1968) stated, "It is a fundamental tenet of measurement [evaluation] that whatever is to be measured must be carefully defined prior to the time that measuring instruments are developed. In other words, the purpose for measuring must be clearly specified before any measuring is done. It follows from this that attempts to evaluate current guidance services must, for the most part, be invalid," as these programs did not have "clearly

defined objectives" (p. 10). Beginning in the 1970s, Johnson and Johnson (2003) emphasized the need for school counselors to be willing to be evaluated on the question, "How are students different as a result of the guidance program?" (p. 181). In their model, "results-based guidance program evaluation is based on the number of students who demonstrate the competencies learned" (p. 181).

Research Supporting These Principles

"Bloom's (1964) findings indicate that the first few years of school are extremely significant in the development of the child's attitude toward school and his [sic] long range pattern of achievement" (Dinkmeyer & Caldwell, 1970, p. 19).

Dinkmeyer and Caldwell (1970) stated that "studies have increasingly pointed to the relationship between social and self development and intellectual development" (p. 7).

Summary

This section of *The ASCA National Model: A Framework for School Counseling Programs* has described the theory base supporting the ASCA National Model. It has discussed what a theory consists of and described the history of school counseling theory development in the profession and in ASCA. Seven fundamental questions were identified as those needing to be answered in a school counseling theory. For each question, answers from the ASCA Ethical Standards, from the profession's history, and from the school counseling effectiveness research base were provided. These sources support the 27 major principles and 15 sub-principles identified as the answers to the seven questions. Each principle is supported by the profession's values, history, and research. These principles describe school counseling theory at the beginning of the 21st century. The ASCA National Model rests on these principles.